DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 208 681 FL 012 599

TITLE	Teaching English to Speakers of Vietnamese. Refugee Education Guide: General Information Series #23.
INSTITUTION	Center for Applied Linguistics, Washington, D.C. Language and Orientation Resource Center.
SPONS AGENCY	Office of Refugee Resettlement (DHHS), Washington, D.C.
PUB DATE	Aug 81
CONTRACT	600-78-0061
NOTE	30p.
EDRS PRICE	MF01/PC02 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	Alphabets; Contrastive Linguistics; Determiners (Languages); *English (Second Language); Error Analysis (Language); Instructional Materials; Intonation; *Morphology (Languages); Negative Forms (Language); Phonemes; Pronouns; *Pronunciation; Stress (Phonology); Suffixes; Syntax; *Teaching Methods; Tone Languages; Verbs; *Vietnamese
IDENTIFIERS	Questions

ABSTRACT

This guide highlights problems Vietnamese speakers are likely to have in learning English because of differences between the two languages and suggests ways of helping Vietnamese students of English over difficulties caused by these differences. The first section of the guide provides an overview of the Vietnamese language: the alphabet, word structure, tones, and writing system. The second section presents aspects of pronunciation that are different in English and Vietnamese. It includes differences in individual sounds, sound patterns, and intonation. Errors that Vietnamese English as a second language (ESL) students are likely to make in English pronunciation are described, and methods are suggested for the ESL instructor to use to overcome these problems. The third section deals with differences between English and Vietnamese structures, including: pronouns, suffixes, tenses, sentences with the verb "to be," questions, negatives, and articles. It is intended to identify basic English structures that are problematical for Vietnamese learners of English, and help ESL teachers working with Vietnamese students to overcome these problems. A short list of references on analyses of Vietnamese and appropriate instructional material for Vietnamese learning English completes this guide. (Author/JK)

****
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
****

Refugee Education Guide
General Information Series #23

ED208681

Teaching English to Speakers of Vietnamese

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY
CAL
TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)
X This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.
☐ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.
• Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official NIE position or policy.

FL012 579

Language and Orientation Resource Center
Center for Applied Linguistics
3520 Prospect Street, NW
Washington DC 20007
(800) 424-3750 (toll-free)
(800) 424-3701 (toll-free)
(202) 298-9292 (in Washington, D.C.)

August 1981

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Introduction 1

The Vietnamese Language. 2
- Alphabet 2
- Word Structure 3
- Tones. 3
- Vietnamese Writing System. 6

Teaching English Pronunciation to Vietnamese . . . 6
- Contrasting Vietnamese and English Sounds. . . 6
- Sounds Which are Produced Differently in English and in Vietnamese. 9
- Sounds Which are Patterned Differently in English and in Vietnamese. 10
- English Stress and Intonation. 12
- General Suggestions for the Teacher. 13

Teaching English Grammar to Vietnamese 15
- Suffixes 16
- Tenses 19
- Sentences with the Verb To Be. 21
- Questions. 22
- Negatives. 24
- Articles 25
- Ideas on Teaching Grammar to Vietnamese. . . . 26

Bibliography 27

References 28

Introduction:

The purpose of this guide is to highlight problems Vietnamese speakers are likely to have in learning English because of differences between these two languages, and to suggest ways of helping Vietnamese students of English over difficulties caused by these differences. The information contained in this guide is intended to help teachers of English as a second language (ESL) who have Vietnamese students.

The first section of the guide provides an overview of the Vietnamese language: the alphabet, word structure, tones and writing system. This overview is the basis for contrasting particular aspects of Vietnamese with English in later sections of the guide.

The second section presents aspects of pronunciation which are different in English and Vietnamese. It includes differences in individual sounds, sound patterns and intonation. Errors that Vietnamese ESL students are likely to make in English pronunciation are described, and methods are suggested for the ESL instructor to use to overcome these problems.

The third section deals with differences between English and Vietnamese structures, including: pronouns, suffixes, tenses, sentences with the verb to be, questions, negatives, and articles. It is intended to pinpoint basic English structures that are problematical for Vietnamese learners of English, and help ESL teachers working with Vietnamese students to overcome these problems.

A short list of references on analyses of Vietnamese and appropriate instructional material for Vietnamese learning English completes this guide.

We wish to thank all those without whose assistance we would not have been able to put this Guide together. We are especially indebted to Dr. Trí Quốc Nguyễn for reading and commenting on the preliminary draft.

I. The Vietnamese Language

Vietnamese is an Austroasiatic language spoken by the people of Vietnam. Two aspects of Vietnamese make it radically different from English. To begin with, all Vietnamese words consist of one syllable. Additionally, Vietnamese is a tonal language: that is, words with unrelated meanings may have the same sound combination but differ only in the tone of voice used to produce the sound combination. These aspects of Vietnamese are explained in more detail below.

There are three major dialects of Vietnamese: Northern, Central and Southern. In addition there are numerous minor dialects and the language is spoken by various minority groups in the country whose native language is not Vietnamese. The references made to Vietnamese pronunciation in this guide for the most part describe the Northern and Southern Dialects. ESL students who are not native speakers of these dialects may have slightly different problems in learning English from those who are.

The Vietnamese Alphabet:

The original native writing system of Vietnamese was a modification of Chinese characters. It was the sole writing system used between the thirteenth and seventeenth centuries. Then a new writing system was developed by Europeans and Vietnamese to further evangelical work with the Vietnamese. This system employed a Roman alphabet modified with diacritics to represent sounds of Vietnamese for which there were no Roman symbols and also to represent differences in tone. For some time the two writing systems -- the Chinese-based and the Roman-based -- were used side by side, although by different segments of Vietnamese society. Today, however, the Roman-based alphabet is used almost exclusively. All of the examples of Vietnamese in this guide are spelled in conventional Vietnamese.

The Vietnamese alphabet is phonetic, with a one-to-one correspondence of sound to letter or letter combination. The alphabet was devised to reflect the

Northern dialect, for which there is the most regular sound-symbol relationship. (In Central and Southern dialects, there are a few cases where certain sounds can be represented by more than one letter or where the same letter can have more than one pronunciation. The chart below presents the letters of the Vietnamese alphabet in the order in which they would appear in a Vietnamese dictionary. Letter combinations that represent single sounds are treated as single letters. For example, words beginning with ch are listed separately after all words beginning with c.

As the alphabetical order of Vietnamese roughly parallels English alphabetical order, one can easily see by scanning the list the Vietnamese sounds which don't occur in English and the English sounds which don't occur in Vietnamese.

Vietnamese Word Structure:

All Vietnamese words are monosyllabic, each with a vowel. The vowel may be simple (one vowel sound) or complex (two or three vowel sounds pronounced as a dipthong). Consonants may be found before the vowel (initial position), after the vowel (final position), or in both positions around the vowel. All Vietnamese consonants can occur in initial position except p, but only eight consonants can occur in final position: c, ch, m, n, ng, nh, p and t. Consonants never occur in groups (consonant clusters) in Vietnamese as they often do in English.

Tones:

As stated previously, Vietnamese is a tonal language. This means that words can be differentiated from each other solely by the tone used to produce them. English uses tonal variations, too, but only to indicate intonational patterns. Intonation is different from tone as used in Vietnamese. Intonational patterns reflect differences in the intention of the utterance (a question, an excalmation, a declaration, etc.), but they do not alter the basic meaning of the word or words used. With one word sentences, we can hear the comparison between tone and intonation more clearly. Now? and Now!, would be said using quite different intonations to express different ideas. However, there is no difference in meaning between the words of the two sentences. By contrast, Vietnamese has words that differ only in the tone in which they are expressed, but the variation in tone differentiates one from another. Such words are likely to have unrelated meanings. For example:

ban means committee	ma means ghost
bán means sell	má means cheek
bãn means table	mã is a grammatical term

The pronunciation of the Vietnamese words in each column differs only in the tone of voice used and each must be pronounced with its proper tone.

Vietnamese Alphabet and Sound Chart

(N) - Northern Dialect Only
(S) - Southern Dialect Only

Vietnamese Letter	Approximate corresponding English Sound
a	a as in father
á	similar to a but shorter like the word sock
â	the vowel in but
b	b as in boy
c	k as in skill used before a, o, and u
ch	similar to but not the same as ch in chop
d	z as in zoo (N) y as in young (S)
đ	d as in done
e	e as in bet
ê	similar to a in state but shorter
g	g as in game before a, o, & u
gh	g as in game before e & i
gi	z as in zoo (N) y as in young (S)
h	h as in hat
i	ee as in heet
k	k as in skill before e & i
kh	not found in English but like combining k and h sounds
l	l as in lane
m	m as in man
n	n as in name

Vietnamese	Approximate corresponding English Sound
ng	ng as in song
ngh	The same sound as ng used before e & i
nh	ny as in canyon
o	oo as in door
ô	o as in go but shorter
ơ	uh as in love
p	p as in top; only used in final position
ph	f as in Philip
qu	kw as in squire
r	r as in raw
s	sh as in show (S) s as in see (N)
t	t as in stop (soft)
th	similar to t as in time (hard)
tr	produced as if the sounds were together
u	oo as in boot
ư	oo as in book without lips rounded
v	v as in van (N) by said together both as consonants (S)
x	s as in sing
y	ee as in beet; also added to other vowels to form complex vowel

Tones are represented in the spelling system by a mark (called a diacritic) over or under one of the vowels in the syllable. There are six such marks representing six different tones. The Northern dialect of Vietnamese pronounces each of these tones distinctively. In the Southern dialect, two tonal marks are used to represent essentially the same tonal pronunciation. An example of the various tonal designations is given in the following chart.

Vietnamese Tonal Chart
(N) - Northern Dialect
(S) - Southern Dialect

Name of Tone	Diacritic	English Description	Examples
Ngang	no marking	High-level tone	ma which means ghost
Sắc	´	High-rising tone	má which means cheek
Huyền	`	Low-falling tone	mà which is a grammatical marker
Hỏi	̉	Low-rising tone	mả which means tomb
Ngã	~	High-abrupt sound,(N) Pronounced like Hoi (S)	mã which means horse
Nặng	.	Low-abrupt sound	mạ which means rice seedling

Any written description of the way tones sound is inadequate but we can give some examples of the way the tones are produced by citing parallel examples in English intonation. Words with the Ngang tone are produced the way most English words in isolation would be pronounced. The Sắc and Huyền tones could be exemplified together with the English expression "Right now!" as said by a mother when calling a child who is late to dinner. In this context, the word 'right' would have a rising tone similar to the Sắc tone and the 'now' would have a falling tone similar to the Vietnamese Huyền tone. The intonation of the English question, Now?, is a very close approximation to the Vietnamese Hỏi tone. In Southern dialect, the Ngã tone is also pronounced like the English question Now?. The Vietnamese word não meaning brain sounds much like Now?; but this tone when produced by speakers of Northern dialect sounds to English speakers as though the vowel is suddenly cut short

or as though the end of the word is chopped off. The Nặng tone is produced by speakers of both dialects in a fashion similar to the Northern Ngã tone but with a lower pitch.

Vietnamese Writing System:

Vietnamese handwriting and punctuation conventions are essentially the same as those used for American English. One area of confusion in the Vietnamese writing system has to do with the few compound words in the language. In formal contexts such as proclamations or textbooks, these words are spelled with hyphens. In informal contexts, such as newspapers or letters, the hyphens are often omitted. Vietnam is an example of this. Việt is the name of the tribe of people living in the area now covered by the country. Nam means south. In Vietnamese, these two words can occur in any of the following written forms: Việt-nam, or Việt-Nam, or Việt Nam.

II. Teaching English Pronunciation to Vietnamese

People learning to speak a foreign language make pronunciation mistakes which are nearly always carry-overs from their native languages. This is why there is an easily recognizable difference between a French accent and a German accent in English. Foreign accents may be interesting and quite pleasant; however, when they hamper communication they can be real handicaps. Therefore, ESL teachers must see to it that their students learn to pronounce English well enough to be readily and immediately understood. Adult ESL learners are not likely to develop native-like pronunciation in English, but they should be guided toward correcting pronunciation patterns that cause difficulties in communication with native English speakers. A teacher can anticipate likely pronunciation problems by comparing the sounds of English with those of the learner's native language. Where there are differences, pronunciation problems in English are likely to occur. This part of the Guide outlines the differences between Vietnamese and English sound systems, describes the pronunciation problems caused by these differences, and suggests effective ways of helping the Vietnamese ESL student overcome these difficulties.

Constrasting Vietnamese and English sounds:

In comparing the sounds of Vietnamese and English we are concerned with two kinds of differences between the two languages: those sounds which occur in English but not in Vietnamese, and those sounds which occur in both languages but which are produced differently or which pattern differently. Vietnamese sounds not found in

English do not as a rule create English pronunciation problems for Vietnamese ESL learners.

Presented below are the most commonly occurring pronunciation differences between Vietnamese and English. The reader is cautioned here that we are presenting differences in sounds, not differences in letters of the alphabet. Moreover, not all Vietnamese speakers will have the same English pronunciation problems because of variation among Vietnamese dialects and because of other languages that Vietnamese learners may speak.

English Sounds Not Found In Vietnamese

Problem English Sound	Likely form of the learner's effort to produce the sound
th as in thin	Usually tin but possibly sin
th as in then	Usually den but possibly zen
j as in jump zh as in pleasure	Neither of these sounds is used in Vietnamese. Zh is used in French which is widely spoken in Vietnam. Jump might be produced as zhump, chump or zump. Pleasure as pleajure or pleazure.
i as in hit	likely to be pronounced heat
a as in pat	e as in pet or o as in pot
oo as in book	likely to be pronounced without the lips rounded to produce a sound like u in buck

The first step in improving the learner's pronunciation of these sounds is to identify which of them are actually being mispronounced. The easiest way to do this is to have the learner repeat pairs of words that differ only in one sound, the different sounds being the one likely to be a problem and the one it might be confused with. These word-pairs are called minimal pairs. For example:

Thank - tank ether - eater bath - bat

If the learner is able to pronounce the minimal pair correctly when repeating it after the instructor, then the anticipated problem sound may not be difficult for the learner to produce in isolation. In this case, time need not be spent on direct

instruction and drill of this sound but attention should be given to whether the learner produces the sound correctly in context. It may be that the learner will need to be reminded about pronunciation of certain sounds which he/she can make consciously but fails to produce when not concentrating on correctness.

If the learner does not pronounce the minimal pair correctly, the usual error is for the two words of the pair to be pronounced exactly the same. This situation probably indicates that the learner cannot produce the anticipated problem sound because he/she cannot hear the difference between the sounds contrasted in the minimal pair. In this case it is necessary to teach the learner to recognize the difference first. This can be done by using the minimal pair as a teaching aid. Make flash-card pictures of the words contrasted in the minimal pair and have the learner associate the different pictures with the contrasted sound. Produce such pairs as bat-bat, bat-bath, bath-bath, bath-bat,... and ask the learner to judge whether the words of each pair are the same or different. Instruct the learner to look for different facial features that indicate different sound productions such as tongue placement. All of these ideas are to help the learner recognize the identity of a sound which is probably very difficult for him/her to actually hear.

After identifying the sound in contrast to related or similar sounds, the learner is ready to work on producing the sound. The best method is probably to get the learner to imitate a native speaker using the minimal pair as a model. Instructing the learner on tongue placements and in what part of the mouth a sound is made can help with some sounds. It is possible that sounds will be easier for the learner to produce in initial position than after a vowel. It is also important to allow the learner to concentrate on the target sound when endeavoring to master its oral form. Therefore, the learner should be directed to produce the sound as it occurs in familiar words without other pronunciation problems. Otherwise problems of vocabulary can interfere with efforts at pronunciation and the learner can be confused and overwhelmed with pronunciation problems.

Production of the target problem sound in isolation is an important step, but the instructor must be warned that production in one context does not necessarily enable the learner to produce the problem sound in all contexts. Furthermore, the learner's ability to produce the sound when paying specific attention to it does not necessarily lead to automatic production when the learner is concentrating on other instructional aspects of the language or when using the language communicatively. Frequent practice and occasional correction may be necessary before a problem sound is internalized to the point where the learner uses it consistently.

It is advisible not to relate the target problem sound to the letter usually used when the sound is written. There are two important reasons for this. First, many Vietnamese students tend to be oriented toward reading and memorizing written material in foreign languages. To improve their pronunciation, they need to be trained to develop their oral skills. Without a letter to associate with a difficult sound, the learner is forced to rely on listening and speaking to develop mastery of the target sounds. Second, the Vietnamese learner can easily get confused between Vietnamese and English sounds and Vietnamese and English spelling for those sounds. Associating sounds with letters of the alphabet before the learner has a complete familiarity with the sounds may lead to associating English letters with Vietnamese sounds, providing a false sense of mastery and preventing appreciation of important pronunciation differences.

Sounds which are produced differently in Vietnamese and in English:

There are two aspects of the way consonants are produced in English which present difficulties for the Vietnamese student. One of these is what linguists call aspiration. Aspiration involves a slight puff of air released when English speakers pronounce the letters p, t, and k at the beginning of words. (For example, say pit or top and hold a sheet of paper in front of your mouth; you'll see the sheet move because of that aspiration.) When Vietnamese speakers pronounce these same sounds in initial positions, they often do not aspirate them, causing such words as pit, tie and call to sound to an English speaking listener like bit, die, and gall. ESL learners can be taught to aspirate by letting air back up behind closed lips and releasing the air suddenly. This exercise simulates the production of an aspirated p; once the learners have mastered the technique, they can go on to developing aspiration with t's and k's. Learning to make the sounds in isolation, however, is only the first step. It requires practice and time before aspirated sounds can be made easily and naturally in context when the learner is concentrating on communication.

A second difference in the way sounds are produced in English and Vietnamese has to do with the way consonants are produced in final position. In pronouncing the word up, for example, most English speakers form their lips to produce the letter p blocking the flow of air at the lips for an instant before the air is pushed out. The sound of the letter p is formed with the closing of the lips; the sound is released as the air is pushed out. For most English speakers, when the sound -p, -t, -k, -m, -n, and -ng are in final position, they are released. However, when these sounds occur in final position in Vietnamese, as some of them do, they are produced as unreleased sounds. This means that the

sounds are formed but the air flow is stopped and not released from the mouth. Native speakers sometimes do this when they run words together. For example, when someone says "Stop that! Don't do it!" in excited conversation, the underlined p and t are probably not released. The speaker forms the letters, but does not release the flow of air until the vowels of the following words. This action is commonly referred to as swallowing the sounds. It has the effect of seeming as if the sounds in final position are not being produced. Since this is common in Vietnamese, Vietnamese speakers of English tend not to release many consonants in final position in English. Consequently, when they say such words as ask, sink, or five, the native speaker of English will hear as, sin and fie. This problem is complicated by problems of sound-patterning differences between Vietnamese and English to be discussed below. Therefore, most Vietnamese ESL learners will have to be taught to release certain English sounds in final position.

Sounds which are patterned differently in Vietnamese and English:

While most English sounds are also found in Vietnamese there are two important aspects of the way these sounds are patterned in English that create pronunciation problems for Vietnamese ESL learners. One of these aspects is that nearly all English sounds can occur at the end of words, or in medial positions, between vowel sounds in words. Of the many sounds found in Vietnamese, only eight can occur in the final position and since all Vietnamese sounds are only one syllable in length, Vietnamese consonants cannot occur in medial positions. Pronunciation of many English final consonants are likely to be difficult for Vietnamese ESL learners. The chart below lists potential difficulties they might have with final consonants and the likely nature of their errors.

The learner can be helped to make these final sounds by working on minimal pairs differing in final consonants such as robe-rope. The learner will probably need to be taught to hear these sounds and to be able to differentiate them before being asked to produce them. Also, the learner must be taught to release these sounds (see previous section), which will be a more difficult problem than learning to form these sounds.

Another difficulty for Vietnamese ESL learners will be consonant clusters or blends -- two or more consonant sounds pronounced one after the other without an intervening vowel. Vietnamese has no consonant clusters; English has

Potential Pronunciation Problems
With Final Consonants

Final Consonant Problem	Likely Form That Learner's Production Would Take
-b as in dab	-p to sound like dap or ∅ to sound like da_
-d as in bad	-t as in bat or ∅ to sound like ba_
-f as in laugh	-p as in lap or ∅ to sound like lau_
-g as in leg	-k to sound like lek or ∅ to sound like le_
-j as in judge	-d to sound like jud or ch to sound like juch
-l as in all	-n as in on or ∅ as in a_
-r as in car	the r will not be pronounced and the word will sound like the British pronunciation
-s as in bass	∅ to sound like ba_
-sh as in rush	∅ to sound like ru_
-th as in bath	∅ to sound like ba_ or s as in bass; learners are more likely to have trouble with bath than with bass
-v as in five	-f as in fife, -d to sound like fide or ∅ to sound like fi_
-z as in jazz	-s to sound like jass

many. English clusters can occur initially as in the words pray, try, please, strike, and snow; they can occur finally as in the words told, sent and vowels. (Some English spellings look like consonant clusters but actually represent only one sound. Th, ch, sh, ph, and most double letters as in words like call, are not consonant clusters.)

Some final consonant clusters are especially important in English and particularly difficult for Vietnamese learners because they are often formed when suffixes are added to words for grammatical meaning. The regular English plural often creates a consonant cluster as with the word books. The same case often occurs with English possessives -- John's; with the s added to verbs with singular third person subjects -- bites; regular English past tenses which are pronounced as t or d -- asked and barred; and with many English contractions -- don't and it's. Vietnamese does not have similar suffixes to indicate gram-

matical structures. Thus when the Vietnamese ESL learner fails to produce a final consonant, the omission may reflect a pronunciation problem, a structural problem or both.

Since there are so many consonant clusters in English, consonant-cluster pronunciation errors reflect the most pervasive and noticeable pronunciation problem among Vietnamese ESL learners. Their errors will usually take one of two forms. They may insert a short vowel sound between the consonants or before the first consonant of the cluster. Thus, star may be pronounced as estar or setar. The second tendency is to delete the second consonant, thus pronouncing told as tol.

Training the Vietnamese learner to pronounce English consonant clusters is very difficult. The learner's problem could stem from saying familiar sounds together, which in itself is difficult. The process is made more difficult when these sounds come after a vowel and/or when either or both sounds don't occur in Vietnamese. Finally, the cluster may be formed because of a suffix which must be learned for grammatical reasons and at the same time pronounced as a consonant cluster. It is advisable not to compel learners to work on clusters containing sounds which are difficult for them to pronounce alone. The th sound should be practiced in words like thank, thick, and thorn before the learner is asked to produce the word three. Instructors should be aware of the pronunciation difficulties they may create for their students with structure lessons on plurals and past tenses. Words like firsts, sixths, fixed, helped, etc. have clusters which are very difficult for Vietnamese speakers to produce. Awareness of these difficult clusters will enable the teacher either to avoid using such words or to give the learner special attention to their production. It is recommended to teach clusters through minimal pairs in which one of the clustered consonants is omitted in the paired word, such as with Fred-red or Fred-fed.

English Stress and Intonation

The term stress is used by linguists for the process in English of emphasizing one syllable over others in a multisyllabic word. For example, stress is given to the second syllable in the word occásion and the third syllable in educátion. Vietnamese has no word stress because all of the words have only one syllable. Intonation refers to the voice contour of a completed utterance; a word, phrase, question, statement, etc. The voice contour may rise on a word that is central to an idea being expressed by the speaker. Generally these

contours rise at the end to indicate questions and fall at the end to indicate statements. Together stress and intonation make up the rhythm of spoken English, and they are generally predictable. However, they are not apparent to the Vietnamese ESL learner. Information, intentions and feelings expressed by a native English speaker through intonation may not be understood by the Vietnamese speaker. Furthermore, the pronunciation aspect in Vietnamese of producing words with different tones may cause the Vietnamese speaker to make unnatural intonation contours when he/she produces English sentences. The Vietnamese ESL learner, therefore, must be trained to pronounce multisyllabic words with their proper stress and to understand and produce English utterances with proper intonation contours.

Proper production of English word stress is best taught word by word. The learner would be advised to be sensitive to the concept of word stress and to learn the stress of each word as he/she learns other aspects of the word such as its pronunciation, meaning and spelling. Intonation patterns are best mastered by listening to and repeating complete utterances. The learner can be taught the importance of intonation through sentences that differ only in intonation contour but which therefore express different ideas. The one-word sentences used above, Now? and Now!, are examples of this. Tag questions, such as isn't he? and won't you?, can be demonstrated with rising intonation to ask for information or with falling intonation to ask for agreement. Once the importance of sentence intonation in English is understood, the Vietnamese ESL learner can be helped to produce English intonation contours by imitating patterns. This is best accomplished with sentences that are easily understood and which do not contain other pronunciation problems. It is difficult to produce utterances with natural voice contours if the learner doesn't understand the meaning of the utterance or must pause at a word that is difficult to pronounce. However, with careful training, the learner can transfer the intonation patterns from familiar utterances to new ones which are expressed with the same pattern.

General Suggestions for the Teacher:

Teacher preparation for pronunciation lessons is largely a matter of selecting minimal pairs for the sound or sounds to be taught. A rhyming dictionary, as well as a regular dictionary, is helpful for this. In addition, there are numerous books on teaching English pronunciation. These usually include lists of minimal pairs as well as information on the way sounds are formed. Some of these books are listed at the end of this guide.

A fair number of pronunciation drills should be conducted chorally, having

the class respond in unison before the performance of individual students is checked. A student's pronunciation should not be corrected when he/she is attempting to communicate an idea except by following these guidelines:

(1) Only correct those aspects of pronunciation which the student is able to appreciate. Making the learner correct a sound in an unfamiliar context or in isolation is futile.

(2) Stop a learner in the context of his utterance only when it is necessary for communication. Other interruptions will frustrate the learner and stifle the communication effort in progress.

(3) Take note of the pronunciation problems of the learners from among those aspects which they have been taught and drilled on. Make reference not only to the nature of the error and its correction but also to the situation in which the aspect was practiced. This helps the learner put the error into perspective and take note of things learned but not used correctly.

(4) Correct no more than one or two things in a learner's utterance, or you will provide more feedback than the learner is likely to be able to retain as well as deflate the learner's ego and confidence in learning the language.

Following these guidelines will make pronunciation correction more effective. It is believed, however, that development of pronunciation will come more readily from careful, progressive and systematic training, and from practice and language use than from pronunciation correction.

One very common phenomenon concerning pronunciation is that the ESL teacher grows accustomed to the pronunciation errors of the learner. The result is that the instructor takes the errors for granted and feels the learner's pronunciation is better than it is. The danger is that the teacher may overlook pronunciation errors which can create real communication problems for the learner outside the classroom. Therefore, it is recommended that the teacher have someone else, from time to time, listen to the student's pronunciation.

Nearly all of the established ESL texts are designed so that they can be used regardless of the native language of the student. They accomplish this by dealing directly with numerous problem areas of English pronunciation. Adapting one of these texts for Vietnamese students requires going through the lessons and identifying those which deal with problem areas for Vietnamese speakers such as have been identified above. Once these lessons have been identified, it will probably be beneficial to supplement the material with additional examples and exercises. It will often be helpful to return to specific lessons in pronunciation which the students have studied, but which provide examples and exercises in features which they continue to mispronounce. It is important to

keep in mind that problems of pronunciation are not solved by training the learner to improve pronunciation in isolated words or in correcting the learner when a pronunciation error is made. The same errors are likely to be repeated again and again, even when the learner has been directed and trained not to make them. Practice, language use and patience will help to improve the learner's pronunciation.

III. Teaching English Grammar to Vietnamese

Along with learning what words mean and how to pronounce them, language students must also learn how to combine words to produce sentences which express what they want to say. This aspect of English is called English syntax by some, English grammar by others. Teaching English grammar to ESL students is very different from teaching it to native speakers of English. Native speakers study grammar to know the intellectually, socially and historically preferred forms of a language in which they are already perfectly fluent. The ESL learner studies grammar for the purpose of developing fluency by mastering the structures of the language.

The purpose of this part of the guide is to point out the structures of English that differ markedly from parallel structures of Vietnamese and which, therefore, are especially difficult for Vietnamese students to learn to use. In some cases these parallel features have markedly different structures but are essentially translatable from English to Vietnamese. In other cases, the English structures stem from grammatical aspects and linguistic systems that have no Vietnamese parallels. In these cases, the languages are structured so differently that translations are only approximate. For example, both languages have regular patterns to express negation and interrogation though the patterns of the language are very different. By contrast, there is no system in Vietnamese which corresponds to the English system of tenses. English sentences in various tenses can be translated approximately, but the tense markers (helping verbs and verb suffixes) cannot be directly translated into Vietnamese.

The Vietnamese ESL learner must master English grammatical patterns to be able to communicate in the language. This requires the learner to understand and be able to use several groups of suffixes which carry grammatical meanings, although Vietnamese does not contain suffixes of any kind. Moreover, the learner must be made aware of how differences in word order cause different grammatical meaning in English, when similar changes in word order do not occur in Vietnamese.

Suffixes and word order determine the form that grammatical structures take. The student must also learn the situations in which these structures are used and the scope and range of meanings that a structure can have. This is particularly difficult for those grammatical structures that do not have directly parallel structures in Vietnamese.

Suffixes:

In English, suffixes are often attached to nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs to convey grammatical meaning. There are no suffixes in Vietnamese. As a consequence, the Vietnamese ESL learner will have difficulty understanding the importance of these suffixes and the meanings they convey. Once the student has learned them, they will continue to be difficult to pronounce and use consistently. Linguists have identified two types of suffixes, derivational and inflectional. Derivational suffixes are those that convert a word from one part of speech to another. For example, -ant (attendant), -or (sailor), and -tive (talkative) are all derivational suffixes.

The suffixes that we are most concerned with here, however, are the inflectional suffixes. These suffixes add aspects of meaning to the words they are attached to and show agreement between different parts of an utterance. Their use is usually obligatory, meaning that if they are not expressed, the sentences are not grammatically correct. Fortunately for the Vietnamese ESL learner, the number of English inflectional suffixes is not large, but all of them are fundamental to English grammar, and all of them can be difficult for the Vietnamese speaker to learn. A review of these inflectional suffixes follows:

The plural -s. English regularly forms the plural of a noun by adding -s to the end of the word. Following certain spelling conventions, the written form of this suffix is sometimes -es. There are three regular pronunciations of the plural suffix; the choice of which sound is made is based on the final sound of the base word. If that sound is voiced, meaning one uses the vocal cords to make the sound, then the -s is pronounced as a z (table-tables). If the final sound of the base word is pronounced without using the vocal cords, the -s is pronounced as an s, (net-nets). For words ending in the sounds s, z, ch, j, sh, and x, the -s (or -es as it is usually spelled) is pronounced as -ez, as for example church-churches. In English, whenever we refer to a number of things, we must use a plural word of some kind, and with many words, even if the number isn't indicated, we use the plural form of the word to indicate that we are referring to more than one. Vietnamese has no plural suffix. When one

refers to a number of things, the amount and idea of plurality are indicated by other words in the sentence. The following sentences illustrate the difference between English and Vietnamese ways of indicating plurality. Notice the form of the Vietnamese word for book, sách, in each of the sentences:

I need books.	Tôi cần sách. (I need book)
I need a book.	Tôi cần một cuốn sách. (I need one piece book)
I need three books.	Tôi cần ba cuốn sách. (I need 3 piece book)
I need a few books.	Tôi cần vài cuốn sách. (I need few piece book)

Note that the difficulty a Vietnamese ESL learner has in remembering to attach an -s or -z sound to the end of English plural words is compounded by the fact that neither of these letters is found on the end of Vietnamese words. For most English words, these added sounds produce final clusters which also are not found in Vietnamese.

The possessive -s. One of the ways English indicates possession is with the 'apostrophe s' attached to the end of nouns, as in John's book or the razor's edge. Though different in written form, the 's is pronounced with the same three sounds as the plural -s -- s, z, or ez -- based on the last sound of the base word. To show possession the Vietnamese use a word similar to the English word of and rely on word order to indicate possessor and possessed. They do not alter the noun. For example:

I need Mr. Quang's book.	Tôi cần cuốn sách của ông Quang. (I need piece book of Mr. Quang)

The Vietnamese ESL learner will have the same difficulties with English possessives as with English plurals. In addition, because of the possibility in some instances of using of plus a noun to indicate possession in English (as in the top of the table), a structure more similar to the Vietnamese possessive structure than 's, Vietnamese ESL learners will use this structure where it is not appropriate, such as Give me the book of Harry instead of Give me Harry's book.

-er comparative and -est superlative. Vietnamese students will have trouble with sentences like John is taller than Bill and John is the tallest boy in the class because they may forget to add the -er and -est suffixes to the appropriate adjectives. The Vietnamese sentences which expresses comparison

is parallel to the English one, but without a suffix:

Minh is taller than Thang.	Minh cao hơn Thăng. (Minh tall than Thang)
Minh is taller than everyone in the class.	Minh cao hơn hết ở trong lớp. (Minh tall than all at inside class)

(Hơn, which we are translating as 'than', really means something like 'superior-to'; the sentence Minh hơn Thăng means 'Minh is superior to Thang'.)

The superlative in Vietnamese is expressed either with hơn, as in the sentence above about Minh being taller than everyone, or with the word nhất, which has an approximate translation of 'number one', 'tops', or 'most':

Minh is the tallest in the class.	Minh cao nhất lớp. (Minh tall tops class)

-ing forms used as nouns. In English, verbs are frequently converted to nouns by adding -ing to the base word. Sentences like Seeing is believing and Swimming is good exercise are examples of nouns called gerunds by grammarians. In Vietnamese such words can be used either as verbs or as nouns without any changes or additions to the base word. This is illustrated by the following sentences:

I drink milk.	Tôi uống sữa. (I drink milk)
Drinking milk gives me a stomach ache.	Uống sữa là tôi đau bụng. (drink milk is I ache stomach)
Minh is going to the hospital.	Minh đi nhà thương. (Minh go hospital)
Even a one day journey is worth a basketful of wisdom.	Đi một ngày đàng, học một sàng khôn. (go one day road learn one basket wisdom) (This is a famous Vietnamese proverb)

The Vietnamese learner of English will try to use verbs as nouns without putting the -ing suffix on, and produce sentences such as Learn English is hard for Learning English is hard.

-ing forms used as adjectives. We also use the -ing suffix to change verbs into adjectives. In the phrases dancing bear and running water, the verbs dance and run are changed to dancing and running, then used as adjectives to modify bear and water. In Vietnamese verbs can function as adjectives, but -- like verbs functioning as nouns -- they do so without a suffix. The verb chảy ('flow'), for example, is a verb in the following sentence:

Nước chảy. (water flows)	Water flows.

but it can be used as an adjective with no modification:

Nước	chảy	sạch	hơn	nước	đọng.	Running water is cleaner than stagnant water.
(water	flow	clean	superior	water	stagnant)	

The Vietnamese student of English will have a tendency to use verbs as adjectives without using the -ing suffix. This lack of suffix, combined with problems of adjective placement (in Vietnamese, they go after the noun; in English, they go before) can lead to sentences like Mothers do work very concerned about that problem. (What was meant here was "Working mothers are very concerned about that problem'!)

Tenses:

One of the most important features of the English language is its system of tenses. In just about every sentence, time relationships -- whether present, past or future, in progress, already over with, and so on -- are carefully indicated by use of a suffix, an auxiliary (or helping) verb like have, be or will, or a combination of auxiliary and suffix. An example of just part of the English tense system is given in the sentence below. Notice how the meaning of each sentence changes because of changes in tense.

I was eating breakfast when the package arrived.
I ate breakfast when the package arrived.
I had eaten breakfast when the package arrived.
I will be eating breakfast when the package arrives.
I will eat breakfast when the package arrives.
I will have eaten breakfast when the package arrives.

Native speakers of English use numerous tenses regularly and consistently and are generally unaware of the interactions between auxiliaries and suffixes that produce the kinds of time relationships exemplified in the sentences above. Speakers of Vietnamese, on the other hand, find the English tense system very difficult indeed because there is no grammatical feature in Vietnamese which corresponds directly to it.

To begin with, a grammatical indication of whether something is happening now, in the past or in the future is often lacking in a Vietnamese sentence; the situation alone tells the listener this type of information. The following sentence, for example, can mean either "I'm buying a sweater and looking for some boots," "I bought a sweater and looked for some boots," or "I will buy a sweater and look for some boots.":

Tôi	mua	áo len	và	kiếm	mua	giày bốt
(I	buy	sweater	and	look-for	buy	boot)

The meaning of this sentence will depend on what has gone on previously in the conversation: if the speaker is talking about a shopping trip yesterday, it means "I bought..."; if discussing plans for next Saturday morning, it means "I will buy..."; and if answering the question "What are you doing here at Macy's?" it means "I'm buying..."

Even when time is grammatically indicated in a Vietnamese sentence, the means for doing so do not correspond to tenses in English. One of the ways of clarifying the meaning of a Vietnamese sentence like the one above involves the use of time words and phrases like hôm qua 'yesterday', ngày mai 'tomorrow' or sang mai lúc 9 giờ 20 'tomorrow morning at 20 after 9'. Words and phrases like these function just like their counterparts in English. But in English, the time phrase and tense in a sentence must "agree" ("I will eat breakfast yesterday" is funny because a future verb occurs with a past time word), whereas in Vietnamese the verb form doesn't change, regardless of time word or phrase. A consequence of this is that the Vietnamese learner of English will tend to produce sentences like Yesterday I buy a sweater.

Another way to be more specific about time in a Vietnamese sentence is to use one of several words which function grammatically somewhat like the English auxiliaries can, may, will, should and so on. Some of these Vietnamese "auxiliaries" have to do with time, some don't. In the following Vietnamese sentences, notice that the time of the drinking changes as indicated by the "auxiliary" word, not by the verb, uống, which is the same in all sentences:

I often drink tea.	Tôi hay uống nước trà. (I often drink tea)
I just drank tea.	Tôi mới uống nước trà. (just)
I am about to drink tea.	Tôi sắp uống nước trà. (about to)
I will drink tea.	Tôi sẽ uống nước trà. (will)
I drank tea.	Tôi đã uống nước trà. (past)
I am drinking tea.	Tôi đang uống nước trà.
I was drinking tea.	(continue)
I drink tea anyway.	Tôi cứ uống nước trà. (anyway)
I usually drink tea.	Tôi thường uống nước trà. (usually)
I did drink tea.	Tôi có uống nước trà. (emphatic)

The Vietnamese learner of English will have a tendency to equate English tenses with these "auxiliaries". Sometimes this will result in correct English sentences. The English future, for example, consists of the auxiliary will plus the verb with no suffixes; it is thus parallel to the sentences above in construction. In most cases the result is not grammatically correct. The English present perfect tense, for example, as in "I have eaten eggplant," involves not only the auxiliary have, but also the past participle, eaten. Its construction is not parallel to that in the sentences above. Vietnamese speakers are likely to produce I have eat eggplant by trying to apply their auxiliary system for the English present perfect tense.

There is a second kind of auxiliary in Vietnamese -- the word rồi -- which occurs after the verb rather than before it. This word is used to indicate that the action of the verb took place prior to a given point in time. Linguists call this a perfect aspect marker. It gives the general meaning to Vietnamese sentences that perfect tenses (tenses using the verb have as an auxiliary) are used for in English. Vietnamese students of English very often equate rồi with the English adverb already, and try to express a variety of past ideas with the word already while leaving the verb in its simple or present tense form. The sentence I go already, may mean I have gone, I had gone or I went.

In general, then, English tenses will cause two basic types of problems for Vietnamese ESL learners. First, the Vietnamese ESL learner will have a tendency to leave tenses out of his English sentences. Second, Vietnamese learners will tend to use auxiliaries without also using suffixes when both are necessary for an English tense. Extensive practice will be needed to learn to produce and use English tenses correctly.

Sentences with the Verb To Be:

In English, the verb to be is very important but it is also very difficult to learn. It is the only verb in English with several different forms for various persons -- am, is, are, was, were, be and been. It is used as an auxiliary verb in progressive tenses, as for example, I am reading; and it is used alone in sentences such as I am a teacher. It is often produced in contracted form with pronouns, as for example I'm or he's, and with not, as for example aren't or wasn't. It follows a subject except in questions when it comes before the subject -- Are you sure?

Vietnamese has a verb which functions in many ways like the verb to be, but with two major differences. First, while the English verb has several forms, the Vietnamese verb has only one, là. Vietnamese students of English tend to forget the conjugations of the verb to be and use one form too often at the

expense of the other forms. The second difference concerns the uses of the verb to be. Sentences with this verb may be of the form subject-verb-predicate noun, as for example I am a student. They can also take the form subject-verb-predicate-adjective as in I am hungry. A Vietnamese translation of the sentence with the predicate noun would incorporate the verb là; but a translation of the sentences with a predicate adjective would not contain a verb. As a consequence, Vietnamese ESL learners would produce such utterances as I hungry, English not easy and She present.

Questions:

Another area of difficulty for Vietnamese learners of English is in the production of English questions. There are two types of questions in English from a grammatical point of view: those which can be answered by a yes or no such as Are you an American?; and those which ask for information of some kind by using a question word such as Where did you come from?

Both types of questions usually involve what is called subject-verb inversion, which means that, unlike an English statement, questions contain some verb form before the subject. Vietnamese does not employ the subject-verb inversion in its question structures. As this process is somewhat complex, we will describe it for both types of questions.

Yes-no questions. In English, yes-no questions differ from their corresponding statements by the order of the words they contain. For utterances using the verb to be, the difference in word order is formed by the subject and the verb changing places. For example:

He is here.	Is he here?

For utterances using verb tenses consisting of auxiliary + main verb, the auxiliary and the subject change places. For example:

He has finished already.	Has he finished already?
He will finish tomorrow.	Will he finish tomorrow?

For utterances using verb tenses consisting of only the main verb without an auxiliary, some form of the verb to do is introduced before the subject.

He comes every week.	Does he come every week?
He came last week.	Did he come last week?

Notice that in this last pair of utterances, not only is an auxiliary introduced to form the question, but the main verb also was changed in form.

Yes-no questions in Vietnamese do not require word order changes. They differ from their corresponding statements in that the word không is added to the end of the statement. For example:

Minh ăn cá vàng.	Minh ăn cá vàng không?
(Minh eat goldfish).	(Minh eats goldfish, doesn't he?)

The Vietnamese ESL learner will have difficulty remembering to invert the subject and verb when asking English yes-no questions. On occasion the result may be an utterance with statement form but with question intonation, such as He has finished already? Frequently such questions are understandable and not unlike questions native speakers of English often ask. There is also a tendency for Vietnamese students to affix no to the end of a statement to make it a question, such as He has finished, no? This question structure would not be used by native speakers and while they would probably understand the intent of the speaker, they would be moved to correct the form of the question rather than answer it.

Wh questions. Questions asking for information are often called Wh questions because they employ question words which begin with the letters wh, i.e. what, where, when, why, who and which. The one question word that does not begin with wh is how. Most Wh questions contain the same subject-verb inversion that yes-no questions contain. For example, When did you see him?, Where was he going? The exception to this is when the question word is the subject of the sentences as in What happened? and Who said that? The subject-verb inversion is a problem for Vietnamese students of English when producing wh questions for the same reasons it is for yes-no questions. There is a tendency for them to omit the inversion and produce questions such as Where he was going? and When you did see him? Even those questions which don't require subject-verb inversion can create problems. The learner feels there should be some kind of auxiliary as English questions always seem to require one. This results in questions such as Who did say that? and What was happened?

In addition to subject-verb inversion, Wh questions present another problem for Vietnamese speakers because of the word order differences in the structures of these questions in the two languages. In English wh questions, the question word nearly always comes at the beginning of the question. In Vietnamese information questions, the question word is substituted for the word or words that would answer the question, as is evident in the following example. The Vietnamese equivalent of what is cái gì and the term for goldfish is cá vàng.

Notice that both cái gì and cá vàng come after the verb ăn:

What does Minh eat?	Minh ăn cái gì? (Minh eat what?)
Minh eats goldfish.	Minh ăn cá vàng. (Minh eat goldfish.)

It is difficult for Vietnamese learners of English to get used to the differences in word order between English and Vietnamese questions. They will need extensive practice with question forms of various kinds using various tenses before they will be able to manipulate the grammatical structures of the many kinds of questions.

Negatives:

Negative statements in English involve a similar breaking-up of the verb phrase, a similar use of the verb to do as an auxiliary, and a similarly exceptional pattern for the verb to be that English question structures involve. In negatives of sentences with the verb to be, the negative marker, not, is found after the verb. For example, He is not a student. In negatives of sentences with a verb phrase consisting of an auxiliary + main verb, the negative marker, not, is found after the auxiliary but before the main verb. For example, He is not sitting here. When there is more than one auxiliary, then the not is inserted after the first auxiliary, as for example He has not been doing very well in his lessons. In some cases, positive statements do not contain an auxiliary, but negative equivalent sentences employ the auxiliary verb to do in some form, as in I do not see him very often.

Negation in Vietnamese is simpler. One makes a Vietnamese sentence negative by inserting the word không in front of the verb. The only exception is with the verb là. To make a sentence negative that contains this verb, the words không phải are used, but they also are found before the verb. The following are some examples of negative sentences contrasting English and Vietnamese.

Minh didn't buy a guppy.	Minh không mua cá mặt trăng. (Minh not buy guppy.)
Guppies aren't useless fish.	Cá mặt trăng không phải là một loại cá vô dụng. (Guppy not correct be useless fish.)

Negative sentences are difficult for Vietnamese learners of English because of the way English negatives are constructed. Vietnamese tend to use no or not as negative markers and produce sentences with these markers placed before the verb in a way that is similar to negative structures in Vietnamese. They are likely to produce utterances such as Minh no buy a guppy and Guppies no useless fish.

Negation is made even more difficult for Vietnamese by the fact that the negative marker in English is often contracted with the auxiliary that precedes it. These contractions result in final consonant clusters which are very difficult for the Vietnamese to pronounce. It is important for the Vietnamese learner to become familiar with and be able to pronounce the negative contractions of English since in informal speech the contracted forms are used far more frequently than the uncontracted forms.

Articles:

The use of the articles a/an and the is one of the most difficult aspects of English to teach, primarily because it is one of those areas of English grammar that we don't understand well enough to describe precisely. We know that in general a/an is used when we are referring to one instance of something or someone indefinite or general, as in John ate a guppy; we also know that in general if we want to refer to more than one something or someone indefinite or general, we use the plural of the noun with no article, as in John eats guppies; and we know that if we want to refer to someone or something definite or specific, we use the article the with both singular and plural nouns, as in John ate the guppy belonging to his sister and John ate the guppies belonging to his sister. We can't, however, explain the numerous exceptions to these "rules", like the sentence The goldfish is a member of the carp family, in which the definite article the is used even though the sentence is talking about goldfish, and not just one goldfish in particular.

Furthermore, there are many nouns in English (called mass nouns or non-count nouns) which cannot occur with a/an or in the plural; nouns such as water, chalk, furniture, soap and milk. We cannot say, for example, Bring me a soap or Bring me soaps. We cannot use number with these mass nouns, either: Bring me three soaps is ungrammatical.

Vietnamese makes a distinction between general and specific, but not through the use of words parallel to a/an and the. It utilizes, instead, a system which is in many respects parallel to English mass nouns as shown in the following examples:

I need chalk.	Tôi cần phấn. (I need chalk)
I need a piece of chalk.	Tôi cần một viên phấn. (I need one piece chalk)
I need 3 pieces of chalk.	Tôi cần ba viên phấn. (I need 3 piece chalk)

The words viên (used here) and cuốn (used above in sentences about the book)

are members of a group of words called classifiers. Nearly all nouns in Vietnamese require classifiers. Their function is similar to but not the same as articles in English. Unlike articles, classifiers carry information about the nature of the nouns they are used with.

This use of classifiers in Vietnamese and the fact that they parallel in many respects the words used with English mass nouns results in a tendency for Vietnamese learners of English to treat all English nouns as if they were mass nouns. They omit articles in sentences parallel to Vietnamese sentences where nouns would not require classifiers. For example, I need shirt. They will use articles which suggest number and then delete the plural marker. For example: I got some book at the library. They will also supply words which are out of place in English but correspond to Vietnamese classifiers. For example: You want one piece shirt?

These problems are very difficult to correct since the article system of English is so complex and the distinction between English nouns which have plurals and those which are mass nouns is not always apparent. The learner will have to understand the difference between the articles of English and the classifiers in Vietnamese, however, if he/she is to develop proficiency in English.

Ideas on Teaching Grammar to Vietnamese:

Specialists in ESL instruction generally agree that learning a second language by memorizing rules of grammar is not efficient. They prefer an approach in which the student learns the language by using it and gaining awareness of its patterns through experience. Some regularities of English structure will become apparent to the learner and others will not. The instructor must be warned not to overload the learner with rules, explanations and exceptions which the learner cannot understand or remember. However, there are differences between the learner's native language grammar and the grammar of English which the learner will have to be taught. There are also corrections which the instructor will want to make in the learner's production but which will not be meaningful if the learner doesn't understand the nature of the correction or the reason for it.

When and how to teach the various structures and grammatical aspects of the language are very difficult questions. These questions have been studied to a considerable extent, and the results are found in ESL textbooks. Fortunately, many of these texts are accompanied by teacher's manuals written for the native English speaker who may or may not have had experience teaching ESL. These manuals usually provide details on such matters as different kinds of drills, ways of setting up ESL classes, procedures for teaching vocabulary,

pronunciation and grammar together, and background information on the language and points to be taught.

It is important to remember, however, that most ESL textbooks are written for a variety of learners with various native languages and different problems in learning English. The ESL teacher is advised to consider carefully the content of the textbook and to use this book as a guide in relation to the particular problems of the students. Perhaps all of the structures included in most textbooks will need to be taught for most classes. Those that deal with the structures discussed above will probably need to be taught in more detail and the learners will need to spend more time on these lessons.

IV. Bibliography

Khái, Bửu. A Formalized Syntax of Vietnamese. Unpub. doctoral dissertation Georgetown University, 1972.

Pham Trọng Lẻ. A Comparative Study of Difference Between English and Vietnamese Structural Patterns of High Frequency. Singapore: RELC, 1970. (RELC 4th Four-Month Course)

Ross, Marion W. Questions in Vietnamese. Unpub. doctoral dissertation, Cornell University, 1971.

Shum, Shu-ying. A Transformational Study of Vietnamese Syntax. Unpub. doctoral dissertation, Indiana University, 1965.

Thompson, Laurence C. A Vietnamese Grammar. Seattle, Wash.: University of Washington Press, 1965.

Trần Khắc Lâm. A Comparison of English and Vietnamese Adjectives. Singapore: RELC, 1974. (RELC 11th Four-Month Course)

All of the studies on the sounds and spellings of Vietnamese are extremely technical Most appear as Ph.D. dissertations or M.A. theses. However, if the reader would lik to delve further into the subject, we suggest the following book:

Vương Gia Thụy. Vietnamese in a Nutshell. New York: Funk and Wagnalls, 1975. $2.45. Paperback.

A linguistically-oriented, but easy-to-use phrasebook and grammar, with an 8,000 word Vietnamese-English, English-Vietnamese dictionary. Describes differences in Vietnamese dialects, outlines pronunciation and tonal system as well as basic sentence patterns. Small enough for pocket or purse.

References

The following books are materials that you will find useful:

Campbell, R.N. English for Vietnamese Speakers: Vol. I (Pronunciation) Southeast Asian Regional English Project, University of Michigan.

This is a comprehensive, detailed set of lessons dealing specifically with pronunciation problems of Vietnamese speakers learning English, accompanied by extensive notes on phonetics and methodology for the teacher. For information on ordering, write ERIC User Services, Center for Applied Linguistics, 3520 Prospect St., N.W., Washington, D.C. 20007. (It was never formally published, and is therefore unavailable through ordinary sources.)

Pham văn Hải. A Study of Vietnamese Tones. Carbondale, Illinois, 1973.

Nguyễn Đăng Liêm. A Contrastive Analysis of English and Vietnamese. (Series C: Book, No. 4) Linguistic Circle of Canberra, 1969.

Contrastive analysis is a procedure whereby the linguist compares one language with another (in this case, Vietnamese and English) to discover in what way they differ from each other. (It was a contrastive analysis that produced the chart on page 6, for example.) This book is not intended for the non-linguist, but will be useful to you if you happen to know a linguist who can interpret it for you.

Nilsen, Don L.F., and Alleen Pace Nilsen. Pronunciation Contrasts in English. New York: Regents Publishing Co., 1973.

This is a collection of lists of minimal pairs, with each list labeled for languages in which the contrast doesn't exist. The labelings are more or less accurate for Vietnamese, and the minimal pairs are subdivided into initial, medial and final position when relevant. The introduction gives a briefing on phonetics, some sample exercises and instructions on how to use the book.

Stevick, Earl W. Helping People Learn English. New York: Abingdon Press, 1957.

This is a small, down-to-earth, sane, sensible book which is expressly designed to acquaint the non-experienced native speaker of English with the ins and outs of teaching English as a second language. It gives general guidelines on teaching pronunciation, and an easy-to-understand introduction to the mechanics of pronunciation. The sections on teaching grammar are equally good.

Vietnamese-American Association. Supplementary Pronunciation Drills for English For Today.

English For Today is the series of ESL books used in secondary schools in Vietnam. (It is based on, but is not the same as, the McGraw-Hill series English For Today.) These supplementary drills are lists of minimal pairs dealing with problem areas for Vietnamese speakers. For information on ordering, write ERIC User Services, Center for Applied Linguistics, 3520 Prospect, St., N.W., Washington, D.C. 20007. (It was published in Saigon, and therefore is unavailable through ordinary sources in the U.S.)